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ABSTRACT

Providing tabular, graphic, and narrative data, this report on American Indian education programs within the Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA) details past, present, and future BIA educational concerns. Specifically, this report addresses: the BIA background; the contemporary scope of BIA education (Federal school operations, higher education and college scholarships for Indian students, Indian controlled schools, and school facilities and construction); BIA education issues and problems (the nature of education and what it can/should do, residential schools, special education, school facilities construction, and success and BIA education). The graphs presented in this report illustrate the historical development of BIA education in terms of types of schools, resource allocations, student population, etc. This report identifies the following as major BIA thrusts for the present and future: emphasis on a scope of interest involving Federal school operations, higher education scholarships, Johnson-O'Malley assistance, school facilities, and Indian controlled schools; adherance to the policy of Indian self-determination; emphasis on reducing the Indian student dropout rate and increasing educational focus on the basics; continuation of off-reservation schools which will become increasingly smaller, requiring highly trained staff to meet the special needs of Indian students; and general perception of the BIA as a technical service unit serving and supporting Indians who are in control of their own schools. (JC)

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RESEARCH AND EVALUATION REPORT SERIES NO. 52

EDUCATION IN THE BUREAU OF INDIAN AFFAIRS

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

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JULY 1, 1977

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Attached for your information is a discussion of education in the Bureau of Indian Affairs. This provided the basis for presentation to Congressional staff members at a meeting held in Washington, D. C., on July 1, 1977. The meeting was sponsored by the staff of the Advisory Study group on Indian Education of the Committee on Education and Labor, House of Representatives.

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EDUCATION IN THE BUREAU OF INDIAN AFFAIRS

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SUMMARY

The history of American Indian education indicates that the schools were first used with tribes as a civilizing agent. In this respect the schools were almost forced upon Indians and thereby a poor relationship between Indian and schools was created. Indians traditionally viewed schools with some misgivings if not outright distrust. Time cures a lot of things and in modern times, Indians are viewing schools in a more positive manner but with certain conditions. The certain conditions are that they must be involved and ultimately in control of the schools that educate their children. This future holds the promise for BIA education.

The scope of BIA education can be divided into the following programs: Federal School Operations, Higher Education Scholarships, Johnson O'Malley Assistance, School Facilities, and Indian Controlled schools. The scope of Federal School Operations is growing less due to Indians assuming control of schools and to decreasing enrollments. However, with the special programs that are required and the extraordinary developmental expenses associated with them, it will continue to cost more to educate Indian children. Indians are seeking college education on an increasing scale and they are completing it in greater numbers. The future of Indian education in BIA is directed by the policy of Self-Determination and ultimate Indian control of schools. The BIA on its own initiative contracted the first Indian controlled school in 1966 and believes that now with the improved authority provided by Public Law 93-638, a better job can be done of turning schools over to tribes.

The characteristics of students enrolled in BIA schools continue to require special programs to meet their unique needs. They are closer to the tribal lifeways than those enrolled in public schools, are older for their grade placement, do less well in school, come from poor families and share the disadvantages of being poor, have family problems and frequently problems with the law. In a sense, and especially at the secondary level, BIA schools are looked on as viable alternatives to public schools. The extraordinary characteristics of Indian children enrolled in BIA schools will continue and so will the need for schools to meet their unique needs. Regarding off-reservation residential schools, they will continue to be needed into the forseeable future. They will have students that have greater educational, personal and social needs than has heretofore been the case and will require a highly trained, sensitive, competent staff to work with them. Residential schools will be small, warm, highly effective educational institutions.

Schools do not comprise the totality of education institutions in the lives of contemporary Indian people. There are other institutions that provide education and schools should relate to them in a common educational effort. Schools do carry the major responsibility and there are basic learnings of the society which they alone handle. They should assume responsibility for these teachings and share responsibility with the other educational institutions. The time is quickly passing when school effectiveness can be measured by a single standardized achievement test score. What is important, however, is getting Indian children in school as early as possible and keeping them there as long as possible. The

dropout rate must be reduced and priorities should be given its reduction. Teaching the basics and reducing the dropout are a two-fold direction that is rooted in Self-Determination. The BIA will become a technical service unit in support of Indians who control their schools.

EDUCATION IN THE BUREAU OF INDIAN AFFAIRS *

Background

The history of schooling American Indians according to European standards and desires started almost with Columbus setting foot in the West Indies. The first school for American Indians was established in 1568 in Havana, Cuba.[1] While this fact is commonly known in Indian education, it is little known that perhaps the first formal use made of the schools by the colonist was in relationship to American Indians. The English, before exporting their education system to the American colonists developed uses for the schools. This meant that as an institution, the schools and other institutions of education were employed by the English for specific social purposes.[2] The eminent American historian Bernard Bailyn discusses seventeenth- and eighteenth-century missionary fervor toward American Indians, especially the manner in which they employed the schools as a civilizing tool. He says:

> ". . . But it had left an eradicable mark on A American life (in referring to the fading of the missionary work as the development of the country and the Indian problem moved West). It had introduced the problem of group relations in a society

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[1] Hildegard Thompson, "Education Among American Indians: Institutional Aspects," The Annals, Vol 311, (May 1975, p. 95.

[2] Lawrence A. Cremin, Traditions of American Education, (New York: Basic Books, 1977), pp. 7-8.

* The author wishes to thank Thomas R. Hopkins for assistance in researching the content of this paper.

> of divergent cultures, and with it a form of action that gave a new dimension to the social role of education. For self-conscious, deliberate, aggressive use of education, first seen in an improvised but confident missionary campaign, spread throughout an increasingly heterogeneous society and came to be accepted as normal form of educational effort."[3]

The point to be made here is the relationship between American Indians and the schools. Indians were taught from the earliest that the schools were the symbol of the non-Indian life. This relationship should be compared to the development of schools in America in general wherein there was traditionally strong and very early support for them.[4] Schools have not always been welcomed by American Indians.

Without belaboring the history of American Indian education, it has been divided usually into the following periods:

Mission Period, 1492 - 1859

Federal School Period, 1860 - 1930

Public School Period, 1931 - 1965

Self-Determination Period, 1965 - Present.

It should be noted that there are other educators who have developed somewhat different periods to reflect American Indian education. However, in reviewing them, it appeared

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[3]Bernard Bailyn, Education in the Forming of American Society, (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1960), p. 39.

[4]Cremin, *op.cit.* Those interested in a succinct and stimulating story of the development of American education will find none better than Cremin's Traditions of American Education.

that the above would do well and that, in light of recent scholarship, would provide a more accurate reflection of recent decades.[5] It should also be mentioned that the Self-Determination Period given above coincides with the establishment of Rough Rock School in Arizona on July 1, 1966. The author of this paper was Director of Education for the Navajo Area Office when Rough Rock was established.

Before closing this brief background on Indian education, it is appropriate to mention that historically and from its inception, the Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA) has considered its education program of the highest priority. It is today the single largest program of the BIA and has been for several decades. As a point of historical interest, Thomas L. McKenney, the founder of the BIA, looked upon the Lancasterian schools, which were developed by the Quakers for the Indians, as the backbone of his civilization program.[6] So, from the start, education in BIA has been very important.

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[5]There are two histories of American Indian education in book form: Evelyn C. Adams, American Indian Education, Government Schools and Economic Progress (Morningside, NY: King's Crown Press, 1946) 122 pp.; and Margaret Szasz, Education and the American Indian: The Road to Self-Determination, 1928-1973, (Albuquerque, The UNM Press, 1974) The Adams book is out of print. For a listing of scholarly works on the history of American Indian education, see Brewton Berry, The Education of American Indians, A Survey of the Literature, (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, A Report prepared for the Special Subcommittee on Indian Education, Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, U.S. Senate, 1969).

[6]J. Viola Herman, Thomas L, McKenney, Architect of America's Early Indian Policy: 1816-1830, (Chicago: The Swallow Press, Inc., 1974), pp. 32-46.

To conclude the background part, a set of graphs and charts which have been developed by the education research staff of the BIA, showing enrollments and appropriations for the past two decades is presented in the following Illustrations.[7]

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[7]Eugene Leitka and Henry Harjo, "BIA Education Enrollments and Appropriations, A Brief Historical Sketch," (A series of illustrations produced by the BIA Indian Education Resources Center, Division of Evaluation, Research and Development, 1976.)

TABLE 1

American Indian Youth In School
Bureau of Indian Affairs
Federal and Public School Enrollment
1952-1976

School Year	Enrollment of Indian Students			Under 6 or Over 18 Years In School (Not Itemized)	Total Enrollment of Indian Students in School (All Ages)
	Public	Federal	Mission		
1952	52,960	36,414	10,067	2,881	102,322
1953	54,417	36,194	10,272	2,782	103,665
1954	58,855	35,586	10,029	3,368	107,838
1955	65,089	39,862	10,680	3,687	119,318
1956	71,956	39,676	11,223	4,637	127,492
1957	76,250	38,295	11,010	6,823	132,378
1958	78,822	39,677	11,261	6,970	136,730
1959	81,098	38,911	11,918	7,739	139,666
1960	84,650	37,377	11,289	8,232	141,548
1961	64,987	38,876	8,883	8,092	120,838
1962	69,651	38,887	9,024	8,752	126,314
1963	72,159	39,785	9,292	10,563	131,799
1964	79,286	44,132	9,236	9,927	142,581
1965	82,302	43,122	8,640	10,304	144,368
1966	86,827	46,154	8,713	9,401	151,095
1967	79,075	55,502	14,592	*	149,169
1968	83,354	55,799	13,492		152,645
1969	115,955	56,560	17,056		189,571
1970	123,550	56,238	16,939		196,727
1971	128,673	56,786	18,224		203,683
1972	134,973	57,788	19,538		212,299
1973	126,923	55,051	22,202		204,176
1974	130,664	52,908	22,602		206,174
1975	133,963	49,806	23,645		207,414

*Note: Beginning in 1967, the annual statistical report discontinued the recordkeeping of over 18 years of age group.

AMERICAN INDIAN YOUTH IN SCHOOL
TOTAL IN PUBLIC & FEDERAL SCHOOLS
1952–1978

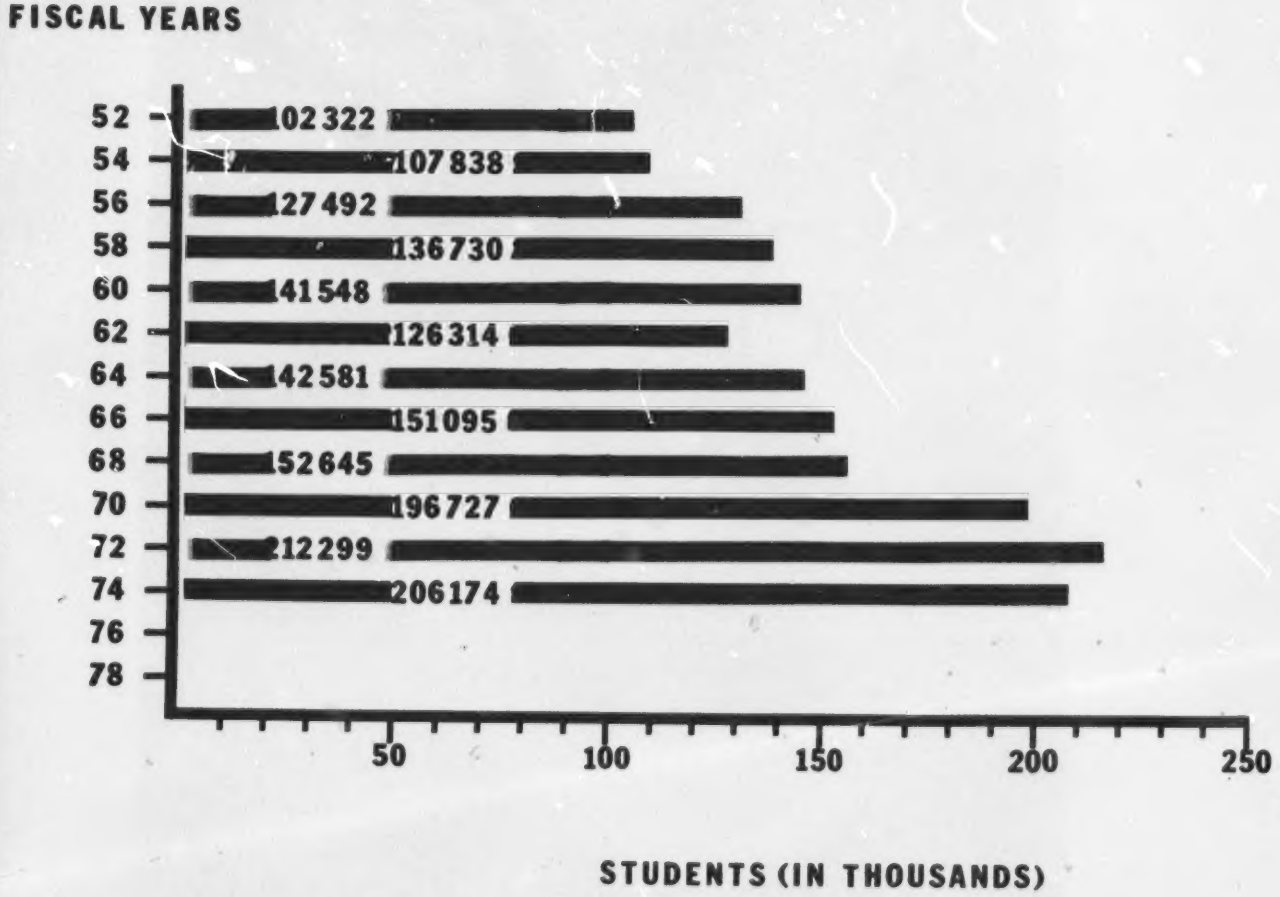

TABLE 4

American Indian Youth In School
Bureau of Indian Affairs
Grade Classification
1967-1976

School Year	Elementary	Secondary	Post-Secondary	Total*
1967	38,250	11,653	1,296	51,199
1968	38,196	11,982	1,380	51,558
1969	38,710	12,361	1,400	52,471
1970	38,722	12,191	1,282	52,195
1971	39,014	12,201	1,376	52,591
1972	39,272	12,133	2,358	53,763
1973	37,129	11,658	2,393	51,180
1974	36,351	10,761	2,412	49,524
1975	33,468	11,020	2,392	46,880

*Note: Exclusive of Enrollment of Concho Demonstration School and Federal Dormitories as shown on Table 2.

AMERICAN INDIAN YOUTH IN SCHOOL
BUREAU OF INDIAN AFFAIRS
FEDERAL & PUBLIC SCHOOL ENROLLMENT
1952-1978

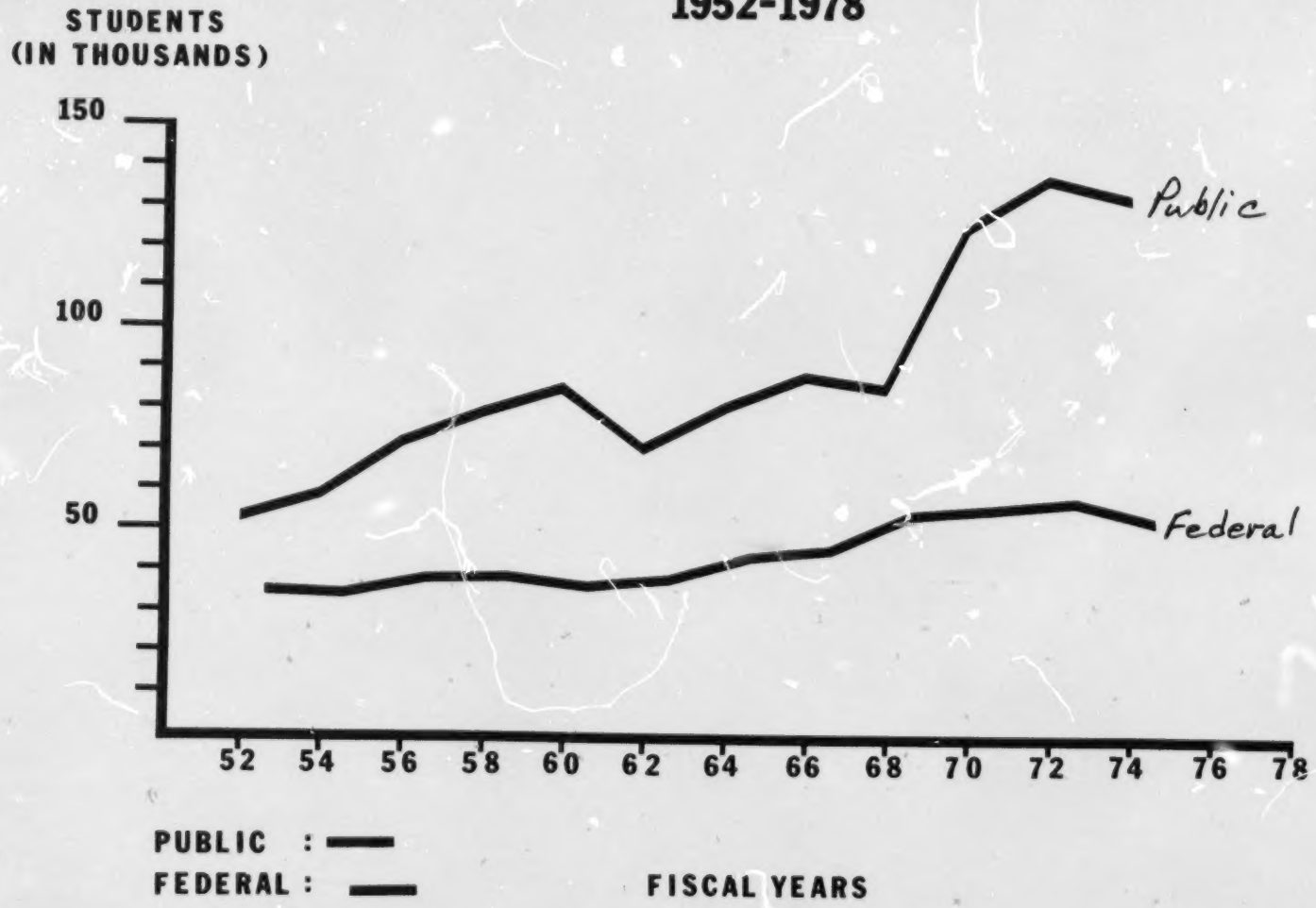

Illustration 2

TABLE 3

American Indian Youth In School
Bureau of Indian Affairs
Boarding-Day
1952-1976

School Year	Boarding	Day	Total
1952	19,549	16,865	36,414
1953	22,538	15,159	37,697
1954	22,120	15,413	37,533
1955	23,385	17,743	41,128
1956	27,394	16,411	43,805
1957	27,973	16,023	43,996
1958	28,483	15,632	44,115
1959	28,442	15,909	44,351
1960	28,299	15,709	44,008
1961	29,930	15,752	45,682
1962	30,413	15,764	46,177
1963	31,892	15,625	47,517
1964	33,974	16,315	50,289
1965	35,883	16,388	52,271
1966	37,298	16,508	53,806
1967	39,037	16,465	55,502
1968	39,513	16,286	55,799
1969	40,352	16,208	56,560
1970	39,448	16,790	56,238
1971	40,133	16,653	56,786
1972	40,432	17,356	57,788
1973	37,543	17,508	55,051
1974	35,840	17,068	52,908
1975	33,812	15,994	49,806
1976	29,255	16,354	45,609

Boarding

1. Boarding
2. Dormitories

Day

1. Day
2. Hospital Schools
3. Concho Demonstration

AMERICAN INDIAN YOUTH IN SCHOOL
BUREAU OF INDIAN AFFAIRS
TYPES OF SCHOOLS
1952–1978

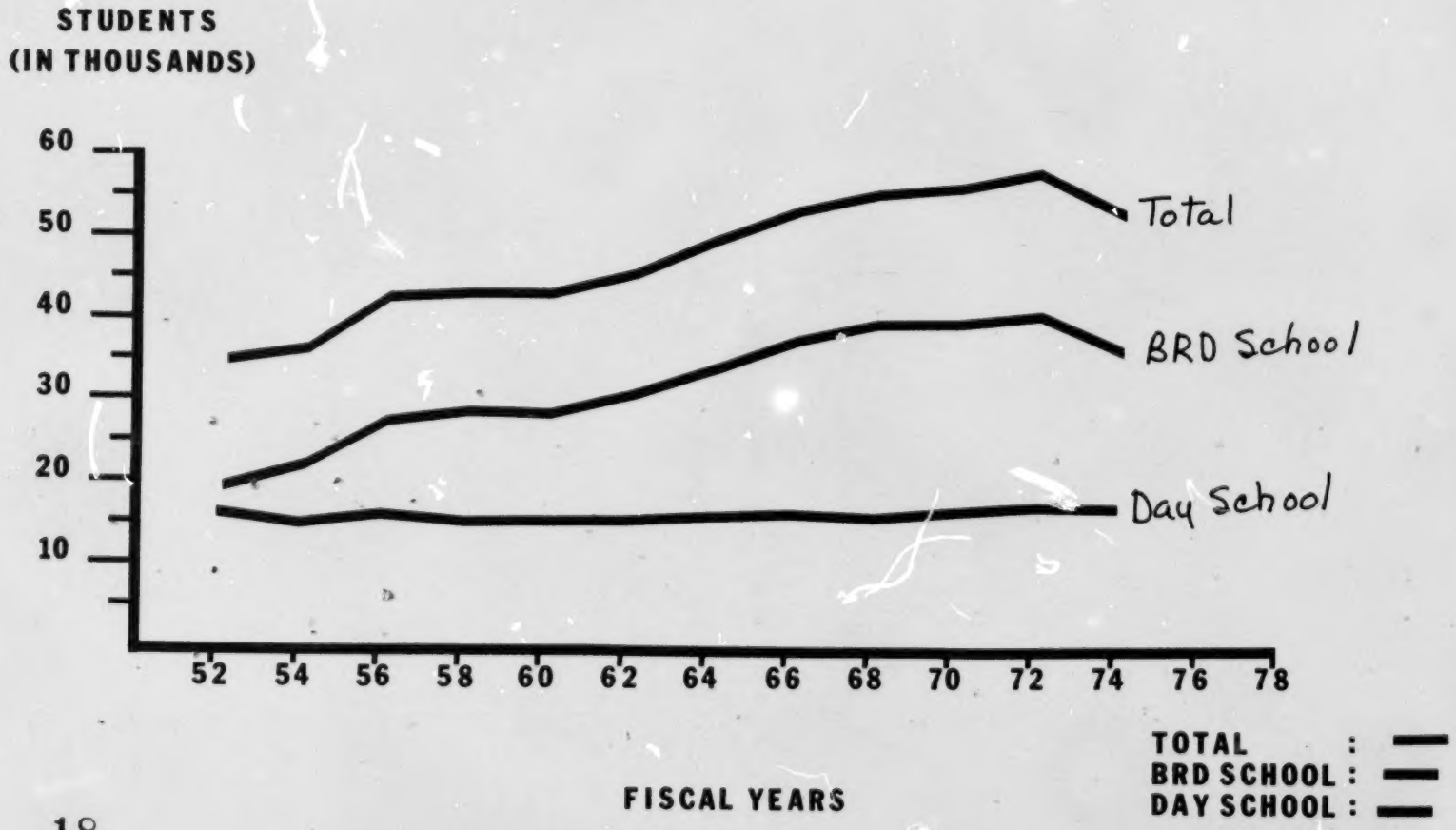

Illustration 3

AMERICAN INDIAN YOUTH IN SCHOOL
BUREAU OF INDIAN AFFAIRS
1967-1978

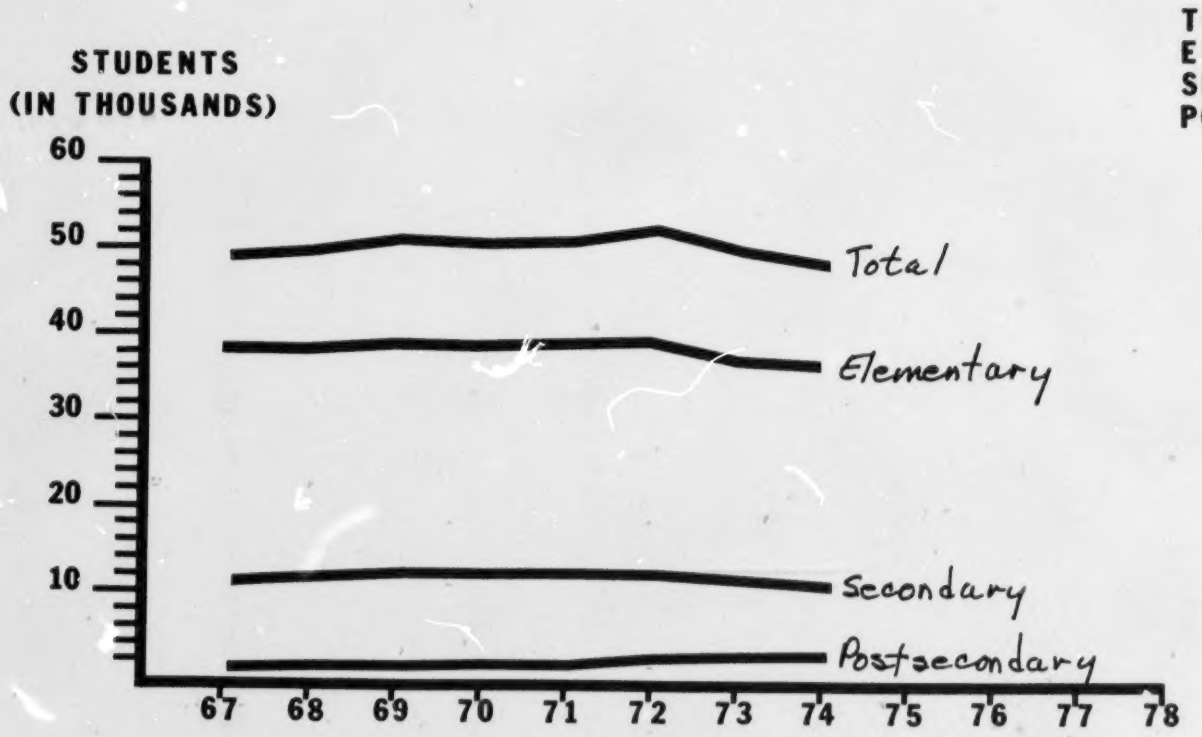

Illustration #

TABLE 5

HISTORY OF BIA APPROPRIATIONS
FOR
INDIAN EDUCATION
1950-1976

Fiscal Year	Amount
1950	13,207,000
1951	21,838,722
1952	16,314,949
1953	21,444,765
1954	21,400,000
1955	23,418,898
1956	38,409,395
1957	42,460,000
1958	47,986,053
1959	48,085,000
1960	50,438,500
1961	55,153,000
1962	58,610,000
1963	62,601,224
1964	66,118,250
1965	70,099,000
1966	76,075,400
1967	84,400,000
1968	86,937,000
1969	96,485,000
1970	117,815,000
1971	143,657,000
1972	164,938,000
1973	184,346,000
1974	181,907,000
1975	220,495,000
1976	243,590,000

HISTORY OF BIA APPROPRIATIONS
BUREAU OF INDIAN AFFAIRS EDUCATION
1950--1978

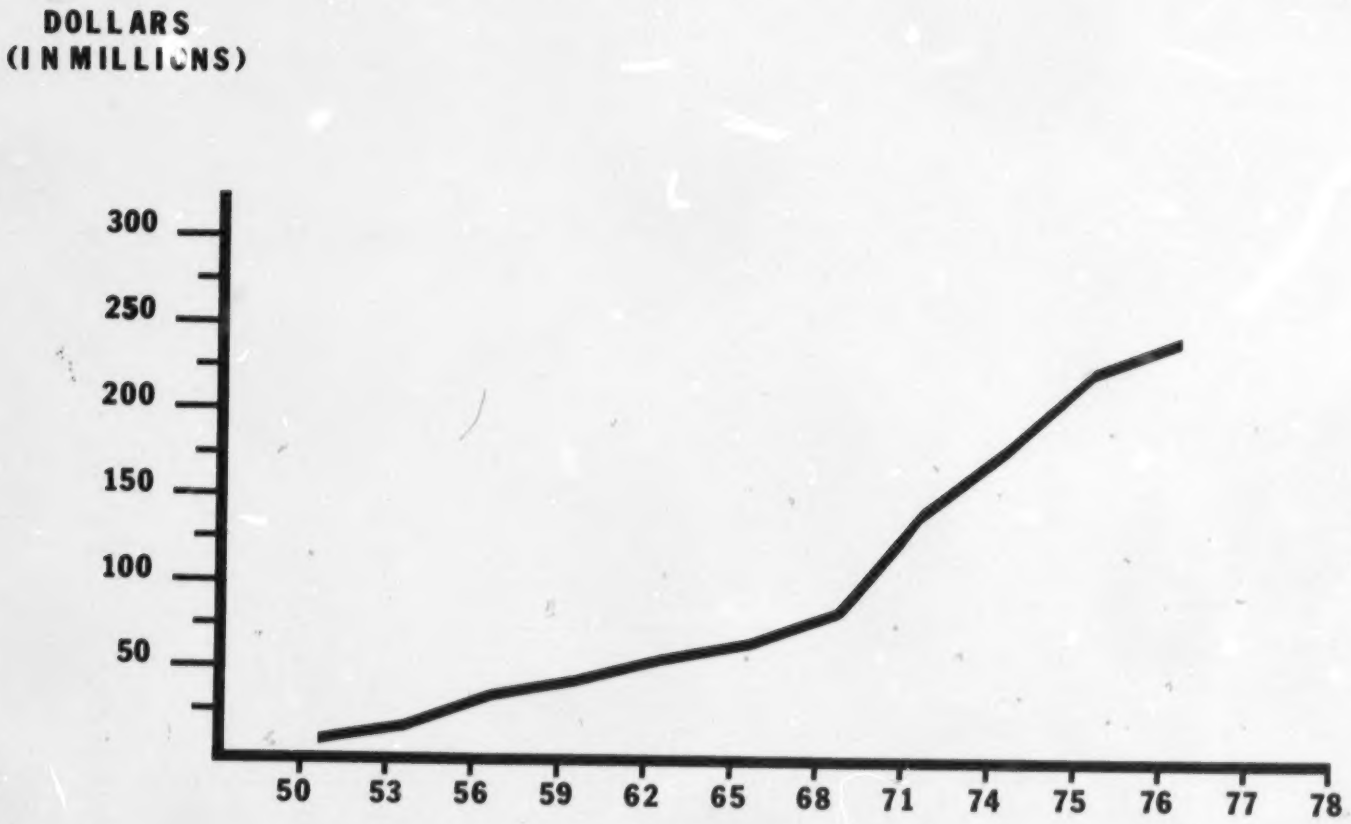

Illustration 5

ORBS AND SIMILAR INSTITUTIONS CONTRAST CHARACTERISTICS
BY PER PUPIL COST - FY 1975

Table 6

*SCHOOLS (RANKED) PRIVATE AND STATE	EDUCATIONAL COSTS PER PUPIL: SIMILAR TRAINING INSTITUTE	EDUCATIONAL COSTS PER PUPIL: OFF-RESERVATION	SCHOOLS (RANKED) BUREAU OF INDIAN AFFAIRS
Hillcrest (Oregon Youth Training School)	$18,886	$13,296	Mt. Edgecumbe
Parry Center (Oregon)	15,633	10,272	Institute of American Indian Arts**
State School for Blind (Oregon)	15,500	9,044	Southwestern Indian Polytechnic Institute**
Taft (Oklahoma Youth Training)	13,725	8,845	Chilocco
McLaren (Oregon Youth Training School)	13,096	7,454	Riverside
Youth Care Centers (Oregon)	11,000	7,404	Intermountain
Tecumseh (Oklahoma Youth Training)	10,628	6,686	Concho
Children's Farm Home (Oregon)	10,566	6,618	Sequoyah
State School for Deaf (Oklahoma)	10,526	6,469	Albuquerque
State School for Blind (Oklahoma)	10,393	6,454	Seneca
Albertina Kerr Homes (Oregon)	10,165	6,072	Chemawa
Whitaker (Oklahoma Youth Training)	9,109	6,062	Ft. Sill
Boley (Oklahoma Youth Training)	9,107	5,444	Wahpeton
State School for Deaf (Oregon)	8,000	5,143	Haskell**
Helena (Oklahoma Youth Training)	7,718	5,133	Stewart
		4,806	Flandreau
		4,728	Phoenix
		4,336	Sherman
Per Pupil Cost (Average Arithmetic Mean) =	$11,604	$6,904	= Per Pupil Cost (Average Arithmetic Mean)

*There are no training institutions in the United States directly comparable to Off-Reservation Boarding Schools. The comparative institutions were chosen for their similarities in operations of Residential Schools as found in Indian Boarding Schools.

**Post-Secondary Schools

COMPARATIVE STUDY
ANNUAL EDUCATIONAL COST PER PUPIL
PRIVATE & STATE - BIA · RESIDENTIAL SCH
MAY 1976

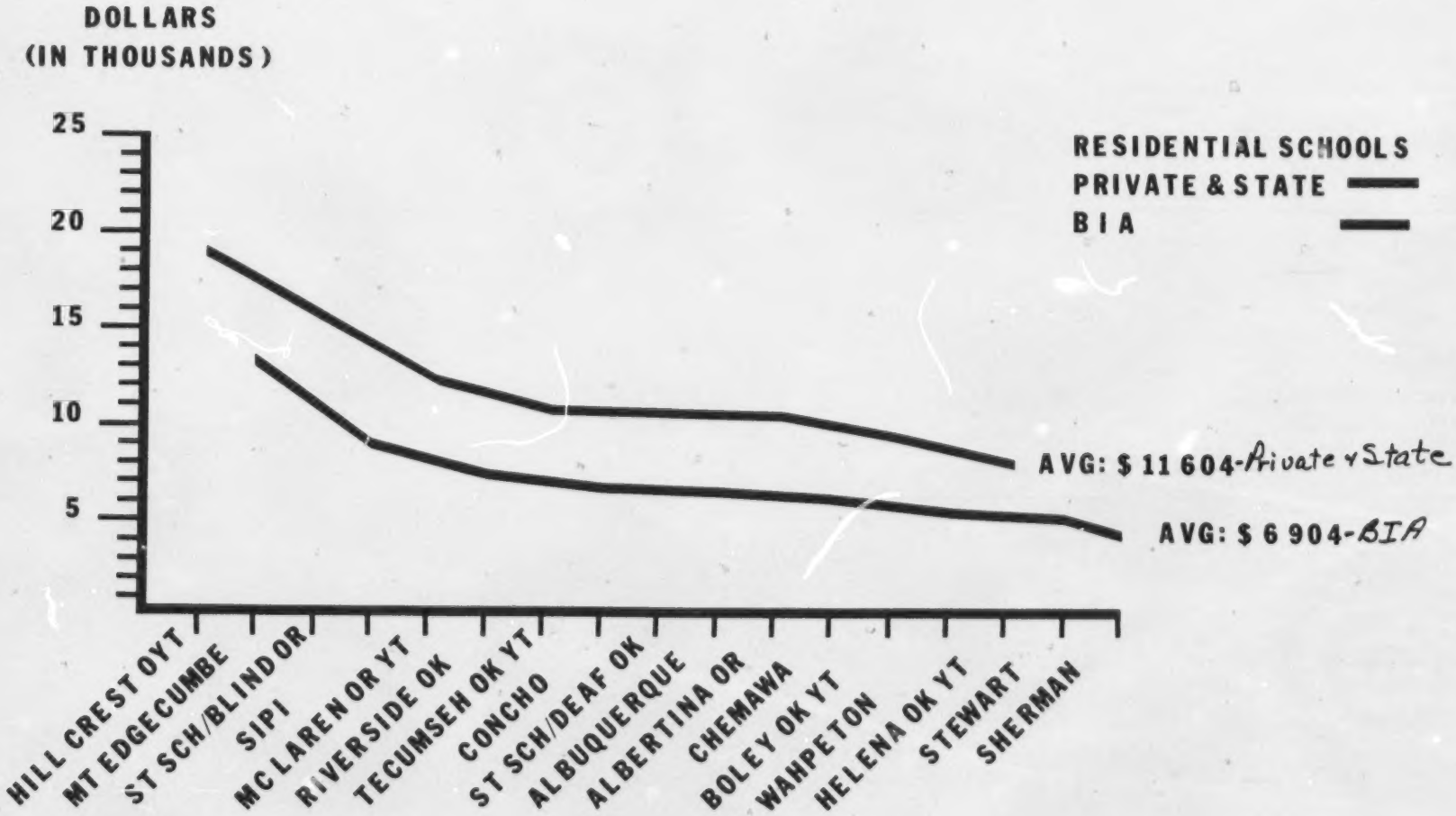

Illustration 6

Contemporary Scope of BIA Education

For Fiscal Year 1977, the Conference Committee of the Congress approved the Appropriations Bill for the Department of the Interior and authorized $236,683,000 for all BIA Education. This Appropriation funds programs in school operations, assistance to public schools, Johnson-O'Malley, higher education scholarships, Indian controlled schools, and construction of school facilities.

Federal School Operations: For the school year 1976-77 and Fiscal Year (FY) 1977, the BIA is operating 225 schools and dormitories from Florida to Alaska. There is a staff of some 9,248 employees which fall under the Civil Service Education classification. The following figures provide additional indications of the scope of the BIA Education:

Enrollment, 1976-77, 50,000

Enrollment, 1977-78, 50,000

Average Daily Membership, 1976-77, 46,000

Day Schools, 1976-77, 23,000

Residential Schools, 1977-78, 21,000

Peripheral Dormitories, 1977-78, 3,000.

Federal school operations have been gradually decreasing over the past thirty years, and it is anticipated that the rate of decrease will increase as Indian-controlled schools grow in number.

Johnson-O'Malley Assistance: Enrollments of Indian children in public schools have increased until there will be an estimated 175,000 in the school year 1977-78. There were 155,430 students enrolled for the school year 1976-77. Illustration 2 provided above in the Background part of this paper gives a graphic display of the trend. Indian children in public schools will attend approximately 700 districts in 24 states. The scope of the Johnson-O'Malley program is quite large and complex. Because of this complexity, attempts to simplify administration of the program have usually concluded in creating more serious problems than existed before the changes were implemented. In commenting on the public school education of Indian children, Margaret Szasz says:

> "The forty years between 1930 and 1970 witnessed the greatest increase in public school enrollment in the history of Indian education. In 1930, Federal schools accounted for 39 percent of the total enrollment of Indian children in school, while public schools accounted for 53 percent. By 1970, . . . public schooling had jumped two and half times, from 38,000 in 1930 to 129,000 in 1970, which meant that 65 percent of all Indian children in school were attending public school. . . ."[8]

The estimated allocation for Johnson-O'Malley assistance for FY 1978 will be 31,542,000 while the allocation for FY 1977 was 31,452,000.

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[8]Margaret Szasz, "American Indian Education, 1930-1970, From the Meriam Report to the Kennedy Report," (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, University of New Mexico, 1972), pp. 144-145. For a more detailed discussion of the public school education of Indians, see Chapter VII, "Indian Children in Public Schools, 1930-1970," pp. 144-185.

Higher Education, Scholarships to Indian College Students: For the school year 1976-77, there were approximately 17,000 Indian college students participating in the BIA's scholarship program. Approximately 16,100 were undergraduates and 900 were attending graduate programs. It is estimated that 1,600 Indian students graduated from college May and June of this year. The estimated allocation for the FY 1978 will be about 35,000,000 (actual 34,950,900). It is estimated that this will provide assistance to 17,400 students.[9]

Indian Controlled Schools: For the school year 1976-77, there were approximately 3,600 Indian children enrolled in 19 tribally controlled schools. Table 7 provides a reliable estimate of what the situation will be for FY 1978. It should be noted that reliable estimates are used inasmuch as the dynamics of Indian controlled schools are such that the situation is subject to change frequently and without notice.

Considering the importance of Indian controlled schools in relationship to the current and future scope of the BIA

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[9]For description of characteristics of Indian college students participating in the BIA program, see U.S. Bureau of Indian Affairs, "Higher Education Evaluation: Student Characteristics and Opinions," (Research and Evaluation Report Series No. 20-A, Albuquerque: Indian Education Resources Center, 1972). Note: Documents from the U.S. Bureau of Indian Affairs will be referred to as USBIA throughout the paper.

Table 7

TRIBAL CONTROLLED SCHOOLS AND DORMITORIES AND THEIR ORIGINS

SCHOOL YEAR 1977-78 BY BIA AREA OFFICE

BIA Area Office	Previous Control		
	Federal	Did Not Exist	Private (Usually Church)
Aberdeen	2	1	5
Albuquerque	1	1	
Anadarko		1	
Billings	2	1	1
Eastern	1		
Juneau			
Minneapolis		4	
Muskogee			
Navajo	3		2
Phoenix	1	1	
Portland		2	2
Sacramento			
Total	10	11	10

Total Operational 31

education program, it is appropriate to include at this point a background to the movement.[10]

It has been said that there is nothing new under the sun in the schooling of American Indians. Education historians who investigate the schooling of American Indians can always find some experiment or movement that relates to current innovations and new policies. The same is true of the policy of Indian Self-Determination and the tribal control of schools. For an example, the Choctaws were one of the first tribes to establish and operate their own schools and this was done between 1826 and 1845.[11] This like so many of the nineteenth century changes in the five civilized tribes, became part of the sad history of American Indian Affairs. The Choctaw Academy got embroiled in national and local politics to the extent that it became a heated issue--and died.[12] There have been many good ideas and innovation in schooling Indians that have met a similar fate.

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[10] The BIA recently made an agreement with the University of New Mexico to have the university research the transition of control of schools from Federal to tribal. For the background to Indian controlled schools see Thomas R. Hopkins, "Assessing the Transition of Indian School Control from Federal to Tribal, An Initial Project Description," (Unpublished Draft, University of New Mexico, June 1977).

[11] George E. Fox, "The Choctaw Academy: An Experiment in Indian Education," (Unpublished MA thesis, The Georgetown University, Washington, D.C., 1943).

[12] Grant Foreman, The Five Civilized Tribes, (Oklahoma City University of Oklahoma Press, 1934), Chap. 11, pp. 35-37. (also *Ibid.*)

The fact that an early movement in schooling Indians did not survive should not be interpreted to mean it was a poor educational move. More often than not, the innovations were ahead of their time. Under these circumstances, those who controlled education and the schools had little or no community control to contend with and merely unilaterally decided education matters according to official Government and church policy. In this respect, though local control of Indian schools was a fact with the Choctaws in the early half of the nineteenth century, it did not become common practice. Therefore, when Self-Determination emerged in the 1970's with full support of the Indians, the Federal Congress and the President looked upon it as new and innovative.

It is important to point out that since about 1950, there have been several investigations of the effectiveness of schools as related to American Indian children.[13] Most scholars reviewing the recent years have characterized the 1960's as indeed

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[13] For evaluation of effectiveness from 1948-58, see Shailer Peterson, How Well are Indian Children Educated (1948), Kenneth Anderson, et. al., The Educational Achievement of Indian Children (1953), and L. Madison Coombs, The Indian Child Goes to School: A Study of Interracial Differences, (1958)(all are published by the Haskell Institute Press, Lawrence, Kansas, U.S. Bureau of Indian Affairs).

a time of searching.[14] In essence, the current policy of Self-Determination in Indian education has its roots in about twenty years of searching for ways of improving the schooling of Indian children.

Like many movements whose time has come, Indian control of schools actually started taking place prior to a formal policy statement and the passage of laws in support of it. Two significant moves were made by the BIA during 1966-68. First, Indian advisory school boards were established for 200 of the 212 schools and dormitories operated by the BIA.[15] One Area office went so far as to develop administrative guidelines for advisory school boards and the BIA had a school board manual developed to provide program guidance.[16]

Second, It is important to point out that the BIA took the initiative in contracting the Rough Rock Community School

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[14] For major reports reflecting the 1960's, see U.S. Senate Report No. 91-501, Indian Education: A National Tragedy--A National Challenge, (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1969), and Estelle Fuchs and Robert Havighurst, To Live on This Earth, American Indian Education, (Garden City, New York: Doubleday & Co., 1972). For a summary of the 1960's, see S. Lyman Tyler, A History of Indian Policy, (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1973), pp. 227-231.

[15] Tyler, *op.cit.*, p. 232.

[16] U.S. Bureau of Indian Affairs, Juneau Area Office, Field Manual. Also see U.S. Bureau of Indian Affairs, "BIA School Board Handbook: A Guide for Community Involvement in Educational Programs," (Albuquerque: Indian Education Resources Center, 1974). The Handbook was first developed in 1968.

in Rough Rock, Arizona. The schools own account of its establishment reads accordingly:

> And here the BIA assumed a position of leadership.
>
> It happened that the Bureau nearly had completed a new $3.5 million school plant at Rough Rock--one of the most remote and tradition-prone areas of the reservation--which it now proposed to turn over to the tribe, plus the $307,000 budget which had been allotted to operate the school as a Bureau facility.[17]

Thus, the first tribally-controlled school was established. Rough Rock Community School started as an experiment in community dynamics and was funded jointly by the BIA and the Office of Economic Opportunity. Soon thereafter, other schools (Ramah and Blackwater) followed and became tribally controlled.

It was an almost natural consequence when President Richard M. Nixon issued his Special Message to the Congress on Indians and made Self-Determination an official policy of his Administration. President Nixon's Message stated:

> ". . . This (Self-Determination), then, must be the goal of any new national policy toward the Indian people: to strengthen the Indian's sense of autonomy without threatening his sense of community. We must assure the Indian that he can assume control of his own life without being separated involuntarily from the tribal group. And we must make it clear that Indians can become independent of Federal control without being cut off from Federal concern and Federal support. . . .

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[17] Broderick H. Johnson, Navajo Education at Rough Rock, (Rough Rock, Arizona: Rough Rock Demonstration School, 1968), p. 18.

". . . Consistent with our policy that the Indian community should have the right to take over the control and operation of federally funded programs, we believe every Indian community wishing to do so should be able to control its own Indian schools. This control would be exercised by school boards selected by Indians and functioning much like other school boards throughout the nation. . . ."[18]

For Fiscal Years 1974 and 1975, the Administration implemented a management by Objectives (MBO) program in all Federal agencies. The Department of the Interior was a participant and instructed each of its bureaus and agencies to develop objectives to reflect work to be carried out. An aspect of the MBO program was to confer importance and status on the various objectives. Therefore, there were designations of "Bureau," "Secretarial" (Secretary of the Interior), and "Presidential" which were in ascending order of importance. The status system was referred to as P/SO meaning "Presidential/ Secretarial Objectives."[19]

BIA Education developed an objective that was accorded Presidential status and thereby became a top priority project. The objective dealt with turning Federal schools over to tribal control and stated that:

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[18] Richard M. Nixon, "Special Message of the President of the United States Richard M. Nixon to the Congress, from the White House, July 8, 1970."

[19] USBIA, "Control of Indian Education in BIA Schools," (Albuquerque: Indian Education Resources Center, Research and Evaluation Report Series Numbers 29.00-29.08, 1974-76).

> By the end of FY 1975, in at least one-fourth (50) of the Bureau schools, by official action of a Tribal or Alaskan Village Government, a choice of the Management System will be made by those served by the schools.[20]

The concluding activity of the MBO project was an external evaluation by two Indian research firms.[21]

The next and perhaps most significant development in support of Indian Self-Determination and tribal control of schools was the passage of Public Law 93-638, "Indian Self-Determination and Education Assistance Act." President Gerald Ford signed the Act into Law on January 4, 1975.[22] The Bureau of Indian Affairs developed Regulations for the law and formalized these in November 1975.[23]

The purpose of Public Law 93-638 states that it is:

> An act to provide maximum Indian participation in the Government and education of the Indian people; to provide for the full participation of Indian tribes in programs and services conducted by the Federal Government for Indians and to encourage the development of human resources of the Indian people; to establish a program of assistance to upgrade Indian education; to support the right of Indian citizens to control their own educational activities; and for other purposes.[24]

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[20] *Ibid.*, p. 1.

[21] USBIA, "Evaluation Report of the Presidential/Secretarial Objective, School Management Options Available to Indian People," (Indian Education Resources Center, Research and Evaluation Report Series No. 29.08, 1976).

[22] Public Law 93-638, 88 Stat. 2203, Title 25, "Indians," U.S. Code of Laws, Section 450.

[23] Title 25, Indians, Code of Federal Regulations, Parts 271-277.

[24] Public Law 93-638, *op.cit.*, p. 1.

School Facilities and Construction: The Bureau's Office of Indian Education Programs has been updating procedures and criteria for determining school construction needs. This has been completed and a priority listing developed from the new criteria. This priority listing is being used for the Fiscal Year 1979 school construction program.

The present priority list has an estimated long range needs of approximately $300,000,000. With this much of a backlog, the Bureau needs a catch-up program of $60,000,000 for ten years and another $60,000,000 a year for yearly replacement (repair of school facilities).

The appropriations for the past years have not been consistent to allow for good planning and projecting project funding. At the present time, the school construction request for FY 1978 has been cut from the Bureau budget and agreed on by the House-Senate Joint Committee. This will delay our replacement needs by at least five years.

Since 1968, there has been a total of 20 school plants constructed. This is exclusive of the construction of individual buildings, such as, gymnasiums, kitchen-dining halls, etc., at existing schools. Of the 20 schools constructed, six have had boarding facilities. The cost has been approximately $43,000,000 for all 20 schools with $20,000,000 of that amount utilized for boarding type facilities.

The number of schools to be constructed in the next five years is dependent upon the arrangement of national priorities.

SCHOOL CONSTRUCTION 1968 - 1972

Location	Amount
Atka School, Alaska	$ 668,000
Chignik Day School, Alaska	745,000
Nondalton Day School, Alaska	546,000
Togiak Day School, Alaska	870,000
Chevak Day School, Alaska	676,000
Savoonga Day School, Alaska	994,000
J.F. Kennedy School, Arizona	510,000
Albuquerque Vo-Tech (SIPI), N.M. 1/	9,755,000
Pierre Boarding School, S.D. 1/	1,167,000
Kyle Day School, S.D.	1,503,000
Peever Day School, S.D.	1,061,000
Sisseton High School, S.D.	3,128,000
Choctaw Central School, Mississippi 1/	1,897,000
Turtle Mountain School, N.D.	2,997,000
Eufaula Dormitory, Oklahoma 1/	1,750,000
Loneman Day School, S.D.	1,303,000
Cheyenne-Eagle Butte School, S.D.	2,918,000
Sherman Indian High School, California 1/	3,080,000
Haskell Indian Junior College, Kansas 1/	2,500,000
Cherokee High School, North Carolina	5,050,000
	$43,118,000
F.Y. 1973: Napakiak Day School, Alaska	1,200,000
Casa Blanca Elementary School, Arizona	1,500,000
Sherman Indian H.S., California	3,070,000
Kindergarten Classrooms & Quarters (Bureau-wide)	1,137,000

SCHOOL CONSTRUCTION PRIORITIES

F.Y. 1979

NUMBER	SCORE	SCHOOL
1	555 (a)	Shaktoolik Day School
2	555 (b)	Red Rock Community School
3	555 (c)	Allen Day School (American Horse)
4	555 (d)	Chemawa Boarding School
5	520	San Felipe Day School
6	507	Ft. Totten
7	480	Northern Cheyenne High School
8	458	Havasupai Elementary School
9	455	Hopi Junior-Senior High School
10	423	Turtle Mountain Community Middle & High School
11	415	Alamo Community School
12	355 (a)	Taos Day School
13	355 (b)	Bullhead Day School
14	354	San Simon School
15	345 (a)	Little Eagle Day School
16	345 (b)	Santa Clara Day School
17	340	Laguna Middle School
18	331	Canoncito Community School
19	320	Pinon Boarding School
20	305	Torreon Community School
21	304	Nenahnezad Boarding School
22	300	Navajo Mountain Boarding School
23	280	Stewart Indian High School
24	249	Wingate Elementary School

F.Y. 1979

NUMBER	SCORE	SCHOOL
25	245	Moencopi Elementary School
26	242	Low Mountain Boarding School
27	230	San Juan Day School
28	172	Salt River Elementary School
29	129	Standing Rock Community Elementary School
30	92	Wahpeton Indian School
31	55	Cove Day School

The Indian Student in BIA Schools

It is fast approaching the time when the BIA Federal schools will handle only 25 percent of the total service population. In this respect, it should be noted that it has been several decades since the BIA responsibility for school operations which enrolled 50 percent or more of the eligible Indian children.

It is perhaps appropriate to start this part of the discussion of BIA education with some mention of demography in relationship to basic statistics on Indian education. To say the least, it is very difficult to obtain and keep current accurate demographic data on American Indians. This has been the case from the beginning of census work in the United States. In a benchmark article on the topic of Indian demography, J. Nixon Hadley said:

> A discussion of the demography of the American Indians is handicapped by the difficulties in defining who is an American Indian...[25]

The truth of this statement were again reflected when the Office of Indian Education of the U. S. Office of Education attempted to obtain from public schools an enumeration of eligible Indian children. They reported a significant increase from one Fiscal Year to the next.[26] Self identification is the method used by USOE in establishing this count of Indian children.

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[25] J. Nixon Hadley, "The Demography of the American Indians," (The Annals, Vol. 311, (May 1957), p.23.

[26] Oklahoma State University, "Oklahoma Indian Education Needs Assessment," (Stillwater, March 1976).

Until some basic demographic research is done on American Indian peoples, actual enrollments in schools will continue to be the best available statistic. This also means that demographic figures used for planning purposes, especially national planning, will continue to be constructs and estimates.

Children enrolled in BIA schools have historically reflected unique and extraordinary needs. These unique and extraordinary needs refer to the cultural-language situation wherein most Indian children entering BIA schools continue to be tribal speakers first and speakers of English as a second language next. They are closer to tribal life-ways than students enrolled in the public schools. They come from poor families and recent research at the secondary level indicates that the residential schools operated by the BIA enroll students who have serious family situations and have found that public schools do not meet their needs.

In 1967, the BIA contracted with the Center for Applied Linguistics to evaluate the language situation in Federal school operations. At that time the BIA was implementing a comprehensive English as a second language program and was seeking assistance to more clearly define the language education needs of Indian children. The report stated:

> ...The languages they (Native Americans) speak constitute varieties which are more diverse than those of the whole of Europe, and the cultural patterns they present are so different that any generalization about them is very hazardous since the variety is still very great.[27]

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[27]Sirarpi Ohannessian, "The Study of the Problems of Teaching English to American Indians, Report and Recommendations," (Washington, D. C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1967) p. 10.

Since this basic work, there have been further efforts to define language education needs among American Indians. One of the recommendations of the report of the Center for Applied Linguistics was for "...a limited number of in-depth studies in the areas with large concentrations of Indians to examine the sociolinguistic background to the learning and teaching of English to Indian students."[28] Consequently, the BIA contracted with Professor Bernard Spolsky of the University of New Mexico to conduct an extensive study of Navajo children's language. This project became known as the Navajo Reading Study and before it was concluded this past year, provided valuable research knowledge about the language of Navajo children and extensive materials devoted to teaching bilingual reading in Navajo and English. The central purpose of the Navajo reading study was to test the "...validity of the hypothesis that children can learn to read a second language with better results if they have received their introductions to the reading process through the medium of their native language."[29]

One of the first tasks of the Navajo Reading Study was to conduct a survey of the language of Navajo children. The results of the survey indicated that:

1. Overall, 73 percent of Navajo six-year olds in the study came to school not speaking enough English to do first grade work.

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[28]Ibid. p. 25.

[29]Bernard Spolsky, "Navajo Reading Study Progress Reports" (Albuquerque: University of New Mexico, 1969-1975). Report No. 1, p. 1.

2. The farther a school is from an off-reservation town, the more likely its pupils are to speak Navajo.

3. The farther children live away from a school, the more likely they are to speak Navajo at home.

4. Language is maintained for some time even when other traditional features of life are given up.[30]

Starting in 1968, the Bureau of Indian Affairs implemented two bilingual education programs, one on the Navajo Reservation and one with the Yuk speaking Eskimo people of the Bethel Agency in Alaska. It should be noted that these programs were undertaken well before the advent of Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, which is specifically for bilingual education programs. The two programs were aimed at teaching beginning reading in two languages.

In perhaps the only longitudinal set of bilingual education data that follows a cohort sample of Indian children, the Rock Point School has evaluated the effectiveness of a balanced bilingual education program.[31] The bilingual education program was started in February of 1967 and has continued through to the present time. The data reflected that a bilingual program is effective and that it does improve reading scores in Indian children at the fourth and fifth grade levels. Using schools with monolingual curricula in English for comparative purposes, the data reflected bilingual instruction to be superior.

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[30] Ibid. Report No. 5, p. 3.

[31] Paul Rosier and Merilyn Farella, "Bilingual Education at Rock Point -- Some Early Results," (TESOL Quarterly, Vol. 10, No. 4, December 1976) pp. 379-388.

The Rock Point program was used to make the point of the effectiveness of bilingual education because it is the only available data of its kind. A simplistic interpretation of these results should be avoided. The Rock Point program is ten years old and has had outstanding continuous leadership during this entire time. There has been a great deal of developmental work devoted to instructional materials, tests, relationships with the community, etc. It has been expensive and has required the best efforts of many highly competent and highly trained professionals. Nothing less than this should be expected when the across-the-board implementation of bilingual education is sought. Unless one takes into consideration for each school what it has taken Rock Point to achieve its results, bilingual education will miss the mark of improved quality of education for Indian children.

There is another word of caution regarding bilingual education programs and it concerns language maintenance. It should be noted that the purpose of the Navajo Reading Study was to improve the language instruction program for Navajo Indian children. In recent times, this purpose has been lost in bilingual education programs and native language programs have been implemented when the first language of the child has been English. This constitutes language maintenance rather than bilingual education and has entirely different purposes. A language maintenance program has purposes similar to those wherein a foreign language is taught to the child. The U. S. Office of Education is concerned about language maintenance being substituted for bilingual as a recent evaluation study of Title VII indicated that one-third of

the children were of "limited English-speaking ability." Also, 85 percent of the directors of the bilingual programs indicated that the children were able to function in English when the program started.[32] Bilingual education is an appropriate instructional strategy but it should not be confused with a language maintenance program.

It should also be noted that the BIA contracted with the National Indian Training and Research Center to conduct a national bilingual education needs assessment on Indian children. This report concludes that there is a need for bilingual education and described the extent of the need.[33] About 60 percent of BIA Indian children could benefit from bilingual education.

Bilingual education and its support are policy for the BIA and have been for several years, with special reference to the past ten. Bilingual education for Indian children is not a simple task and all too frequently comparisons with such Indo-European languages as Spanish provide an unrealistic assessment of what it takes to develop a truly effective program. It is only now, after ten years of bilingual education, that the actual costs and technical needs of bilingual education are beginning to be known.

There are other extraordinary educational needs of Indian students attending Federal schools. It was mentioned above that Indian students

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[32]Phi Delta Kappan, "Report Hits Bilingual Education for Kids Who Speak English Now," (Vol. 58, No. 10, June 1977) p. 789.

[33]USBIA, "Bilingual Education Needs of Indian Children, A Survey," A survey conducted by the National Indian Training and Research Center (NITRIC) (Albuquerque: Research and Evaluation Report No. 36, 1976).

attending BIA residential high schools (off-reservation boarding schools) come from public schools. Research conducted during the school year 1975-76 indicated that 80 percent of the students enrolled in three Oklahoma off-reservation residential schools came from the public schools. Regardless of the grade they entered at the BIA residential school, 85 percent of the students will come from the public schools. Also, when they leave the BIA school, most of them will re-enroll in a public school.[34] Table 8 provides a summary of the findings, the background of Indian students enrolling in off-reservation residential schools. The Oklahoma schools are typical of all BIA off-reservation residential schools.

Tables 8 and 9 clearly indicate that the secondary population of BIA schools is a mobile one. In another study it was found that one-third of Alaskan Native high school students change schools at least once between grades nine and twelve.[35] There has been no assessment or research to determine the extent to which mobility affects student success.

In a related area of concern, recent research was reported which indicated that children from conventional homes do better in school than children from broken homes. In a three-year longitudinal study

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[34]Thomas R. Hopkins and Richard L. Reedy, "Schooling and the American Indian High School Student," (Unpublished manuscript, May 13, 1977). This manuscript has been submitted for publication and should appear sometime this coming school year. Tables 8 and 9 are taken from the article.

[35]USBIA, "Alaskan Native Needs Assessment in Education" (Albuquerque: Indian Education Resources Center, Research and Evaluation Report Series No. 18, 1974).

Table 8

PREVIOUS SCHOOL EXPERIENCE OF INDIAN STUDENTS ATTENDING BIA RESIDENTIAL SCHOOLS, SCHOOL YEAR 1975-76

Previous School Experience	% To BIA School "A"	% To BIA School "B"	Average Percentage
K-8 Public Schools	78.2	81.9	80.0
K-8 BIA Schools	3.9	4.7	4.3
K-8 Combination BIA & Public Schools	17.9	13.4	15.7
Last Attended Public School	86.0	83.0	84.5
	(N=206)	(N=172)	(N=378)

Table 9

PREVIOUS PUBLIC SCHOOL EXPERIENCE, BY GRADE, OF INDIAN STUDENTS ATTENDING BIA RESIDENTIAL SCHOOLS, SCHOOLS "A" AND "B" COMBINES, SCHOOL YEAR 1975-76

Previous School Experience	9th Grade %	10th Grade %	11th Grade %	12th Grade %	Average %
K-8 Public Schools	73.3	81.3	84.5	81.7	80.0
Last Attended Public School	82.2	80.2	88.7	87.0	84.5

(Total N=378)

(1973-1976) of 2,000 ninth grade students from broken homes: (1) Have a higher average absence rate than do students from conventional homes. (2) Students from broken homes will have a lower grade-point average than will those from conventional homes, and (3) students from broken homes have a greater percentage of truancy, suspension, expulsion, and dropout than do those from conventional homes. A conventional home was described as one wherein the children lived with their natural parents.[36] With this in mind, it is interesting to look at Table 10 and the data on Indian students enrolled in BIA off-reservation residential schools.[37]

In recent research investigating the effectiveness of schooling on the lives of students, Henry Levin suggests that the self-concept is one variable that might prove helpful to the student and the schools in assisting the disadvantaged individual.[38] There has been enough research on the self-concept of American Indian children and youth to indicate that it is lower than the non-Indian child and youth. The most research on Indian self-concepts indicates that they are still lower than the non-Indian. Further, self-esteem and locus of control (extent to which the individual feels they control their environment) combined

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[36]Mary G. Conyers, "Comparing School Success of Students from Conventional and Broken Homes," (Phi Delta Kappa, Vol. 58, No. 8, April 1977) p. 647.

[37]Hopkins and Reedy, *op.cit.*, p. 9.

[38]Henry M. Levin, "A New Model of School Effectiveness" in Schooling and Achievement in American Society, ed. by William H. Sewell, et. al. (New York: Academic Press, 1976) pp. 267-289.

Table 10

FAMILY SITUATION OF INDIAN STUDENTS ENROLLED IN THREE BIA RESIDENTIAL SCHOOLS, SCHOOL YEAR 1975-76

Family Situation	School "A"	School "B"	School "C"	Average Percentage
Living with Both Parents	46	47	39	44
Living with One Parent	44	36	47	42
Living with Other Than Parent	10	17	14	14
From Unconventional	55	53	61	56
Both Parents Living	71	75	61	69
	(N=206)	(N=172)	(N=171)	(N=549)

are variables which indicate attitude toward the school.[39] Whatever the school can do to strengthen the self-esteem of the Indian student will do much to improve their probability of success.

Longitudinal studies that have been conducted to determine the relationship between schooling and social success in the United States continue to show that individuals with more schooling get the better jobs. That is, status attainment in society depends on the amount of schooling one obtains. The quality of the schooling and subjects studied have less a bearing on status attainment than does the single factor of years of schooling.[40] It is assumed that this finding would also apply to the education of American Indian children and youth. In this respect, the holding power of the schools and dropouts become a very important concern.

Dropout studies that have been conducted reflect a pattern that has been about the same for at least ten years. This pattern indicates that as the Indian child remains in school, the rate of dropout increases until there is about a 50 percent leaving rate. This means that it is probable that for every 100 Indian children entering school in kindergarten, only 50 of them will remain in school to

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[39]James C. Martin, "Self-Esteem and Locus of Control as Predictors of Indian Student Attitude Toward School," (BIA Education Research Bulletin, Vol. 5, No. 2, May 1977), pp. 15-20.

[40]Brent M. Shea, "Schooling and Its Antecedents: Substantive and Methodological Issues in the Status Attainment Process," (Review of Educational Research, Vol. 46, No. 4, Fall 1976) pp. 463-526.

graduate from high school. This more than any other factor in Indian education must be improved.[41]

In concluding the part on student characteristics it is important to note that the economic circumstances of the Indian family are among the poorest in the United States. Poor families can provide fewer basic advantages for their children than can middle-class families. This as much as anything else influences the BIA to emphasize early childhood education programs that can have a material influence on the schooling of children.

There are other student characteristics of American Indian children that could be mentioned, but the above will suffice to make the point that those enrolled in BIA schools are extraordinary in need. Also, those Indian children for whom the BIA has a responsibility and who are enrolled in public schools have greater needs than those of their non-Indian counterparts. The educational need of Indian children remains great regardless of their being enrolled in a Federal, public or tribally controlled school.

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[41]For data on dropouts see USBIA Research and Evaluation Report Series Nos. 42, 42.02, and 43-A. Also, op. cit. Hopkins and Reedy, p. 5.

What is Education, What Can and What Should It Do?

The purpose of this section of the Issues and Problems part of this paper is to clarify education so that a legitimate role for it may be understood. The following discussion provides an approach to education that has been part of the BIA for more than thirty years. While the schools are the main institution of education, there is a shared responsibility without which the schools are assigned responsibilities far beyond its capabilities.

The Fiscal Year 1977 Appropriation for the BIA Education Program was about 240 million dollars, which makes it the largest single program within the BIA. Education has been the largest single program of the BIA almost since its inception in 1824, so this is no new information. The purpose of this reference is to point out the importance of education to the Indian people as it is reflected in the Appropriations from the Congress. It has been said by previous Commissioners of Indian Affairs and noted Indian leaders that the entire function of the BIA is educational. It is contended that there is a shared education function in all programs of the BIA with the Education Program assuming responsibility for those functions specifically related to the schools.

Not only does the Education activity in BIA share an education function with other program offices, schools at the community level share the education of Indian children with other institutions. Schools share education with the tribe, households, mass media (television, radio, publications, movies), government (tribal, local, state, Federal), rehabilitative institutions (welfare, reformatories), courts, and businesses. To name a

few, these institutions share an education function with the schools. There are, however, special responsibilities that are specifically those of the schools and colleges. What, then, are the major responsibilities which schools can be expected to carry out?

First, there are teachings which are carried out in the schools that are not assigned to any other institution. After all, "Children don't think up algebra on their own." Schools can be expected to teach Indian children skills and content in the language arts (English and tribal), mathematics, science, and government (citizenship). In essence, the schools can and should teach the traditional 3 R's as they are largely the sole responsibility of the schools.

Second, it continues to be true that those individuals with the most education (schooling) receive the greatest economic benefits. This holds true for American Indians the same as it hold true for non-Indians. This means that it should be a major education objective to get all Indian children in school and keep them there as long as possible. This would require a viable very early childhood education through college program, including adult education.

In summary, the BIA Education Program should emphasize the teaching of the 3 R's and as much education as possible for all Indian children/youth/adults.

There are a large number of shared educational responsibilities about which the schools should do their fair part. This would include attitude development, personality adjustment, health and safety, guidance and counseling, alcoholism, vocational training, and early childhood education. The schools have a basic charge including shared responsibilities but they cannot be held totally responsible for the shared ones.

Next, it is important to realize that the BIA Education Program is taking place in a setting of Self-Determination. Ultimately, this means local tribal control of schools. Control means that the tribe would have full responsibility and control of a school regarding staff, budget, administration, and curriculum. Regarding a Federal school, it means great involvement in advising the BIA employees about the school program in virtually all the areas comprising actual control.

It is reliably estimated that there will be 31 tribally controlled schools for the Fiscal Year 1978. This number includes 10 previously BIA schools, 11 that did not previously exist and were created by tribes as alternatives to the existing situation, and ten previously private schools. This number does not include the six previously BIA schools in Alaska that have become part of the unorganized borough system of public schools. In addition, there were two schools closed, Wrangell in Alaska and White Horse Lake (Navajo) in Arizona. Federal BIA schools are decreasing in number and tribally controlled schools are increasing in number. What does this portend for the future of BIA?

It is proposed that the future BIA will become a technical service unit in support of tribally controlled education; with special emphasis on the largest program, school operations. BIA employees will become education specialists whereas today they are mostly teachers and education program administrators. The education specialists will have skills in contract management, evaluation of education programs, education research, and curriculum specialities. Obviously, without school operations, there will be fewer Federal employees.

This does not mean that Indian education will necessarily be less expensive. With adequate funding of an education program from very early childhood through college, which includes bilingual education and other special programs where appropriate, it can be anticipated that costs will rise. This is especially the case considering the high "developmental" and "start-up" costs for special programs which support the unique needs of Indian children. Control, be it tribal or Federal, will make little difference in the costs of the needed programs in Indian education.

The future BIA Education program will also have school operations. School operations will be comprised of those units which tribes do not wish to assume responsibility for operating. This would include off-reservation residential schools and possibly the three postsecondary junior colleges. Recent enrollment trends reflect a decrease in off-reservation residential school enrollment. However, recent research into the characteristics of students enrolling in off-reservation residential schools indicates that they have extraordinary needs. Over 60 percent of them come from broken homes and 80 percent of them come directly to BIA schools from the public schools.

There will be a continuing need for small off-reservation residential schools. On the other hand, there does not appear to be a need for the large off-reservation residential school.

Local control and local involvement, as much as anything, mean control of curriculum. The strategy or approach to BIA Education should take this into consideration. This means that the immediate needs of the program rest in technical assistance to local Indian individuals

who are making decisions about the school program. It also means that curriculum control cannot be exercised from the BIA Central Office down to the local unit. The emphasis on the technical assistance function in support of local control and Self-Determination should receive priority consideration. Training to meet this need is important and imperative.

The element of time should be given careful consideration in developing program strategies. To actually implement a single program or an administrative procedure throughout the BIA requires several weeks and months and sometimes even years to actually see it through to fruition. Hence, developmental time evolving into years, especially when careful and thorough Indian involvement is considered, is reasonable. To think that something should be decided and carried out within a span of a few weeks or months is unrealistic. What is needed is careful consideration of time as an element in planning and implementing programs to effecuate the above program thrusts.

It is the above discussed program concepts and setting that should guide the organization and management of the BIA Education program.

It is perhaps appropriate to discuss the problems of the BIA Education program. However, such a discussion will be cursory as it is thought the positive aspects of the above discussed program, if implemented, will take care of the problems.

In summarizing the total discussion presented above, BIA Education has major responsibility for schools. The major responsibility of the schools is teaching the 3 R's with shared responsibilities in a number of other areas of concern. Along with the major objective of teaching

the 3 R's is one which calls for all Indian children, youth, adults, to get as much school as possible.

In other words, get Indian children in schools and keep them there as long as needed or desired. Then, the education setting is one characterized by Self-Determination or Indian control and involvement in the school and total education program. BIA Indian Education programs which emphasize such directions will require adequate Appropriations, improved leadership and most important, improved management.

Residential Schools: In a recent article titled, "Residential Schools at the Crossroads," the need for off-reservation residential schools was discussed.[42]

In reviewing the situation closely--trying to be factual and realistic--it appears that there is a need for BIA residential schools. This need emanates from the characteristics of the students and the families from which they come. Emphasis should be placed on this fact as it will influence cost analyses significantly. The educational need to which I make reference describes a person who has serious personal, social, and educational problems. The needs of this individual are not met any place else in the society except in the BIA residential school. The same facts that describe this almost desperate educational need reflect that there are fewer students today than yesterday.

When I put it all together, looking from the facts to what is possible in residential schools of the future, it appears to be something

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[42]William J. Benham, "Residential Schools at the Crossroads," Journal of American Indian Education. Most of the material presented above is taken from this article.

like this: Indian tribes who are involved in decision making will be reviewing each residential school situation in detail. They will be making informed decisions and will be working with the BIA and with their congressional delegations toward resolution of their need. In all likelihood, they will come forth with the concept of a community education center something like that suggested in the Oklahoma Indian Education Needs Assessment which said:

> It is recommended that any future construction funding for Bureau schools in Oklahoma be used to remodel and develop existing facilities around the community education center concept. Thereby, Indian citizens of all ages could utilize the centers for a variety of activities including those of a vocational, avocationa, recreational, and educational nature.[43]

In such an institution, I visualize a highly effective residential school for a limited number of students with extraordinary needs. These schools will focus on being the most effective of their kind in the country and the world. This will be the main consideration. Costs will be an important but secondary consideration. These schools will be staffed with a host of types of professionals who will have the proper attitude, skills and time to deal as needed with the students. The focus will be on the institution becoming small, humanly warm centers, where students with extraordinary needs will be welcome -- and more importantly, will themselves feel wanted. In my view, and based on the facts as reported, perhaps it is unlikely that there will be a continued need for the very large residential school which enrolls more than a thousand students (or even 700 students) and which offers a conventional educational program.

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[43]USBIA, "Oklahoma Indian Education Needs Assessment" (Albuquerque: Indian Education Resources Center, Research and Evaluation Report Series No. 43-A, March 1976, Vol. 1) p. 50.

On the other hand, and again based on the facts, it is plausible to suggest the small residential school that can be the community education center for Indian tribes related to the existing residential school.

Special Education:

On November 29, 1975, President Ford signed into law the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (P.L. 94-142). The forthcoming funds will provide for assurances that all handicapped children receive a full, appropriate, public-supported education in the least restrictive environment possible. Public Law 94-142 extends the existing funding formula to states set forth under P.L. 93-380 for the 1976 and 1977 fiscal years, but beginning in 1978 the new law will pay to the states and local education agencies 5 percent of the average per pupil expenditure for handicapped children being served. The percentage of cost that will be assumed under P.L. 94-142 increases every fiscal year until it reaches a maximum of 40 percent in 1980. The BIA may receive up to one percent of funds for aid to states, based on a demonstrated need.

Most of the special education activity in BIA schools has been operated with flowthrough funds from USOE. The two outstanding needs concerning full special education services in the BIA continue to be: (1) Budget line item for initiating and maintaining special education programs and services in BIA-operated schools, and (2) Mandatory legislation with respect to the education of exceptional Indian children.

School Facilities Construction: Historically, the need has been for adequate school facilities for Indian children. It is only in recent times that this need is beginning to be met. Anyone familiar with

school facilities for Indian children is aware of the uses to which cast off military bases have been applied. Also, when the Navajos accepted schools following World War II and began to attend any and all schools there was an actual crisis which was met by special Acts of the Congress. In current times there is a declining enrollment with Indian children, as with the total American education scene. However, with Indian education there is a continuing need. It should be realized that facilities on the scale of schools have been difficult to realize in the rural circumstances in which they have been built. Facilities in general are scarce and treasured.

Self-Determination means above all the tribal control and management of services. The general policy and program in self-Determination generates a need for facilities on the scale of schools. When and if there are declining school enrollments and facilities become less used or unneeded for school purposes, recent experience has shown that the tribe can assume control of a school building and use it for different programs. A tribe may choose to house their tribal offices in a former school. Or, if there are unused classrooms, the tribe may start an adult education program that they have not been able to start because of lack of facilities. A survey of the total situation regarding need for facilities will reflect a changing use being made of unneeded school facilities.

On the other hand, there is a need for new facilities to replace those that are worn out. There have been only limited appropriations made in recent years for new school construction. The rule has been to

build new school facilities only where there is a desperate need as a result of fire or some calamity beyond the control of man. The consequence of this has been the development of a backlog in the need for school facilities. A new priority system for determining school facility construction has been developed and is being implemented. This should provide to the Congress current information on which to base funding decisions on new school construction requests.